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July 1934

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BULLETS OF DEFENSABLE



AIRCRAFT SINCE 1907

AVIATION

FOR JUNE, 1934

There are now scores of income seeking commercial operators who are willing to shatter the idea that the aerial camera is an inflexible machine, too expensive and too expensive for them to use in their business. Aerial photography is frequently confused in their minds with mapping which does require specialized equipment and technique but military oblique can be taken with modest equipment by anyone who is familiar with the principles of operation of the standard kodak. This article, based on several experiences, shows how it can be done.

Revenue from Photography

By Charles H. Gale

Forchfield Aerial Camera Corporation

FLYING SERVICE operators as a group have been slow in realizing the value of aerial photography as a source of income, partly because of certain misconceptions of the scope and technique of this type of operation and partly because of a belief, which has not been without foundation up to the present time, that the expense and complexity involved would not justify the potential income from this phase of activity. The reason that it is necessary to make extensive modifications in the structure of airplanes for this type of service is undoubtedly a result of the popular notion of aerial photography and mapping in the minds of operators. The same confusion has led to a comparison of the equipment necessary for the most expensive types of survey equipment with the price of the airplanes on which it might be used and many operators have concluded that such luxurious properties were not for them.

Those who have studied the situation in greater detail have learned that it is not necessary to tear apart their airplanes in order to produce highly satisfactory oblique photographs. For one this discovery has not reduced a con-

siderable number of commercial operators to realize the possibilities for expansion that lie in this field because they believed the cost of oblique equipment, although relatively low, was still too high for their limited budgets.

With the advent of improved and still less expensive equipment, aerial photography has taken on a new significance but it remains a source of income which has been virtually untapped while the operators sought to exploit other flying enterprises and even various non-flying enterprises which held more promise of revenue.

Take an example to prove the point. William W. Kratz, manager of the St. Louis Flying Service at Lambert Field observes that "The field of oblique aerial photography is wide open for the average operator. Where we began taking aerial photographs last year, 1933, we scarcely expected to make a regular business of it. However it was soon apparent to us that there was a definite need for aerial photographs in many phases of business and now this department is one of our best money makers."

The experience is particularly convincing because Kratz operates in a territory which has been a busy aviation center, with a certain amount of photographic flying, for many years.

The field of oblique aerial photography has the double advantage of being easy to handle successfully and being the kind of photography which is in greatest demand. With modern equipment oblique can be taken of every type of subject by merely making ordinary adjustments and wiring the camera over the side of the airplane. There is no need of even a special mounting.

And it has been demonstrated further that modern equipment has been refined to the point where one doesn't have to be an expert aerial photographer to secure commercial aerial photographs which are readily saleable. At the same time, recent developments have gone far to eliminate the obstacle of expense, so that departments of flying become available to more operators than ever before.

In order to add aerial photography to his operations the average operator needs only to acquire a suitable camera, choose an operator. He already has the aircraft, the operating staff and plenty of sales situations—the post-office, commission services of friends, merchants, service organizations of hotels, and perhaps of well-to-do local phone supply stores,—for promoting the sale of air photographs.

The operator does not even need to

very about dark room facilities as long as he has available the co-operation of a local professional photographer who has adequate developing and printing equipment. The co-operation of the photographer in many cases extends to partnership in the ownership and operation of the camera and in the possession of films, that advantage will further the investment required for a competent aerial photographer. Operators have established successful working agreements with newspaper photographers, to cover both the aerial operations of the camera and the darkroom work. Howard H. Maxwell, vice-president of the Central Aeronautical Corporation of Indianapolis, is one of many who has worked successfully with a local professional photographer. The latter worked as aerial camera, did the photographing and supplied the photo, while Louismen Maxwell supplied the flying. This co-operation is vital.

Others prefer to establish their own dark rooms and do the developing and printing themselves. This has been done, for example, and it should be noted, by Kenneth Unger, who has successfully and profitably operated the Unger Flying Service at Hanks Field, New

Brunswick, N. J., for a number of years. He uses his aerial-camera, lens for double exposure, mounting it on an airplane body or armed a camera body hanging without loss at a hangar.

Revenue imperative

Mr. Unger's experience is one of the outstanding examples of the possibilities of aerial photography for the commercial operator. For two years he has used a standard Fairchild F-8 camera with an F4.5 lens, variable lens change in the air and on the ground as well as for oblique, and within a certain range for vertical. He was able to regain his investment on the first order secured.

Despite the reduced amount of flying done last year, he was able to take in net more than \$600 with his camera. That was \$600 which he would not have had otherwise, an additional income picked up in what might almost be termed incidental work. While as small as it is, it is a large sum if it does represent an ongoing return on a small original investment, and any activity yielding such a high-end figure appears exactly worth while. Louismen Maxwell also reports that, for the time

spent on his photographic mission, the recovery return was highly gratifying.

Mr. Unger uses representative passenger films and the easiness of fast film is one of the reasons why aerial photography now is easier than in the past. The film is faster than the older types, and therefore the shutter speed can be faster. That reduces the risk of spoiling negatives by blurring, a major portion of the photographer must



Photo of 1000 tons, even 100 tons on occasion, frequently can be sold for the business interests whose perspective can be viewed, particularly in the case of industrial waste battle (where money is lost distributed by photograph). Outlets and industrial manufacturers. Above: Shooting from the air with the new Fairchild "C" type aerial camera.

be made at slow shutter speeds. Mr. Unger uses filters when atmospheric conditions require them, and here again the improved film cameras help the operator, too, even with films high that their speeds can be used.

Photo fee on a surer

Aerial service operators have found that aerial photography systematically yields in a safe customer guarantee an asset of considerable value. Repeat orders for prints of photographs are common, and photographs taken on expeditions (that is, without specific orders) usually find suitable purchasers.

Repeat orders may amount to considerable revenue. One order for a set of five aerial photos resulted in a new hospital in St. Louis later bought Krite orders for four additional sets.

The Kansas Aerial Survey Corporation of Lansing, Mich., effectively displays its wares by issuing a catalog with highlights of certain air views in their collection and having hundreds of the most popular ones with a brief description of the subject. The catalog includes an order blank and explanations for value of air views as gifts, as decorations in homes and offices, as a means of making current in art travel and as souvenirs of places visited, as well as for industrial use.

Speculative work

Considerable revenue has been earned by Unger by making it a practice to expose his camera film on each photo graphic situation and disposing of the results in speculation. That, instead of retaining with only the exposure which has been considered safe, he uses the balance of his film on whatever looks promising in the return trip. Enough of these had casualties to make the total worth while.

The St. Louis Flying Service has followed the same practice successfully. Last winter, for instance, it was engaged to make three aerial photographs of a projected park in a 50 acre suburb and while on that mission, which required only as hour's flying, five speculative shots were obtained. Twenty dollars was received for the captured pictures and two of three taken on speculation were sold for \$25 each, which was clear profit.

More effective promotion has been found by Unger to be part-time salaried working on a commission basis. Window displays create interest, but he does not find them developing re-

venue. Salesmen can be drawn from among the students, friends, and visitors at the airport. They may be paid in cash, or in form of instruction time. This arrangement not only causes orders but produces increased volume of flying and airport activity. Louismen Maxwell has found air views published in the press with a credit have helped.

Krite considers publicity received from photographs appearing in newspapers with a credit less the most effective type of promotion in his territory, and attributes two large orders directly to it. While the newspapers paid only a nominal fee for the service, the photographs were noticed by a construction company which had just finished a large lock in the Mississippi River 90 miles from the field. A cash order was placed by long distance telephone, the camera was completed four hours later by Unger.



One operator who has made profit out of aerial photography is Kenneth Unger of Hanks Field in N. J.

only two hours of flying and \$225 was paid for the job.

Krite also has found that when time is available, business can be stimulated by making use of twenty aerial photographs of prominent residences and institutions and selling them to the owners through personal calls. He says that all 20 per cent of these photographs are sold. The \$2000 in sales, which included an amateur sale at night even greater, have been especially popular.

Service charges vary

The charges for aerial photographic work must necessarily vary with each community. For special orders Maxwell charges anywhere from \$25 for a single picture and \$1 for each exposure following. For individual orders

Mr. Unger charges a minimum of \$300 for two prints if the subject is within a 10 mile radius, or \$100 for a print over 15 miles. If the subject is beyond the 25-mile limit, the customer is charged the minimum price plus the regular flying time while the plane is beyond the 25-mile limit. Flying time on a New Standard, which Unger uses consistently, has been \$30 per hour, or \$100 for 3 1/2 hours.

Work handled on a long-time basis, such as the work he has done for state and county mosquito control commissions, is charged for in accordance with the conditions governing the nature of the job. In the state mosquito-commission work the camera was operated for 15 minutes and the operator received \$2.15, providing a substantial margin of profit.

Unger has found that on an average photographic flight he is able to secure about 20 useful pictures. Each picture, including the cost of development and printing, costs him approximately \$2.15, providing a substantial margin of profit.

Prospects are plentiful

To date Unger has experienced great demand for aerial photography of industrial plants and business buildings, public and private institutions, rail and water subdivisions, private homes on both the group and special order basis, and such subjects as swamp and marsh drainage projects, water supply developments, building construction and sewage disposal plans for State, County, and City Governments. He also has received considerable orders for photographs of over-seas flying their plans to be popular.

Other customers for aerial photographs include Chambers of Commerce, civic organizations, owners and operators of resorts, transportation companies, construction companies, hotels, service clubs, and amateur organizations of all kinds, schools, large business organizations willing particularly to illustrate their home offices or main plants.

On the basis of these experiences the operator who have tried it declare that aerial photography is something which all flying service operators can undertake, but that it must be taken as seriously as any other part of the operator's business, either be performed in a businesslike manner, must be carried out safely and efficiently. Typically every community contains sufficient potential demand for aerial photography to provide the operator with an important source of income. He has only to go about it aggressively, and to make sure that he gives a good enough service to make each order to bring more business from the same source.

Ingenious Pan American terminal design speeds parting guests and simplifies customs and immigration procedure for new arrivals at Miami

Port of Entry deLuxe

By Williams E. Berchtold

AMERICA'S traditional penchant for airports which leave the bird "world's largest" has again been satisfied with the opening of Pan American Airways' new International Air Terminal at Dade Key, near Miami. However, it is not the size of the terminal so much as the confidence of its layout plan for traffic handling which will attract the interest of those within the aviation industry.

Designed to handle as high as 750 passengers daily in addition to time of need and expense, the new marine air transport station has been laid out on a simple, compact plan which will cut to a minimum the confusion usually attendant upon the arrival or departure of international travelers whether by air, sea or land. The whole project shows unmistakable signs that conceived as sea-mail traffic and operations, this have had a hand in the architect's plans, a principle not too frequently followed in the construction of air terminals throughout the country.

Four flying levels of the "Clipper" class, or even much larger, may be loaded simultaneously. The four loading docks are reached from the central terminal building through four covered walkways originating from the lower floor of the building. An exceptionally well planned system of corridors for passengers (which may be controlled by a system of television pairs) and a series of passageways for operating personnel render possible confusion during embarkation or disembarkation.

The building is so designed that all operating personnel who need not come in contact with the passengers, from the



The traffic circle in front of the building is at the end of a delivery lane with constant gates.

port captain to the pilots, meteorologists, radio operators, baggage handlers, and postal employees, are kept "behind scenes," yet all operating offices are conveniently connected by private passageways which are not opened to the public. Company personnel and other workers can have their own cubicles on the lower floor of the structure. Mail and express dispatches enter the building through an entrance provided for trucks and move through the terminal to the waiting airframes without ever coming into view of the passengers. Time elements, cost for mail and the others for express and incoming baggage and express, carry all dispatches between the main floor of the building and the lower floor which leads to the walkways and the loading docks.

The control waiting room

Passengers preparing for embarkation are received into the attractively decorated, two-story control waiting room, all by all. Mailed dispatches and express parcels are sent to the baggage room to solve the problem of flight documents the upper portions of the au-

thor lobby, which is surrounded by a balcony on the second floor level. The major air routes of the world are featured on a 30-ft. globe in the center of the waiting room. Discharged and electrically operated ballers round all arrivals and departures for the benefit of passengers or visitors.

Passes who need passengers arriving at the main entrance to the building take all baggage through a separate entrance pass to the right of the lower waiting room by passengers. All baggage, traffic and customs operations are concentrated along one end of the lobby. The traffic deck, flanked by stairs for the weighing of passengers and baggage, is large enough to permit eight clocks to all radiate simultaneously, while the traffic office just behind the desk is large enough to accommodate ten additional clerks. Public telephones, a telephone office and other conveniences have been provided at the central waiting room.

When the departure ballers board buses instructions for passengers to proceed to one of the four loading docks or the load speaker system announces



The International Air Terminal at Dade Key, Fla.



Four "Clippers" while one is loaded at adjacent dock.

the imminent departure of a plane, passengers proceed to the lower floor of the building where a short flight of stairs. There can be no confusion in their reaching the proper loading dock, loading gates on all of possible exits except the proper one. Eight gates have been so placed in the three major corridors which lead all passengers to the waiting planes, that there can be no question about direction. Mail, express and baggage has been loaded before the passengers arrived on the floor.

Passengers departing at an international airport of entry present the most complicated problem which must be solved in managing the traffic movement

of passengers through such a terminal. The folding gates in the corridors of the lower floor again play their role in directing the flow of traffic, removing passengers being checked on a flight of stairs which lead directly into the offices of the United States Public Health Service and then into the Immigration and Customs inspection rooms. By the time passengers have reached the customs inspection, all baggage has been told out on a long counter which winds around three sides of the room. Baggage is brought directly from the services in the customs room on trucks which are kipped on an elevator to the main floor relieving the passage of

all responsibilities. The incoming passenger's first contact with friends or relatives awaiting his arrival is made as he moves into the central waiting room from customs inspection.

Friends who accompany passengers to the terminal or visitors interested in watching the arrival and departure of the airlines are given free rein in the central waiting room, on the balcony which approaches it, in the three outdoor observation decks which overlook the port, and in the bar and dining room on the second floor of the building. They are not provided to reach the lower floor of the building (reserved for loading operations), or to enter duty areas on the first floor, customs, immigration, health or company employees. The dining room overlooking Bayside Bay accommodates 160 persons while 50 additional places may be set on the open deck in front of it if necessary.

The pilot's room, port captain's office

and ground offices are located on the main floor at the terminal with a surrounding ring of Battery Day. The United States Postoffice, postcardists' room, and radio operators' department are disseminated on one side of the main floor, while the customs, immigration and health inspection rooms are on the other side of the floor. A vault, storage rooms, employees' cafeteria, and offices for the building crew are on the lower floor, which is chiefly devoted to the three major corridors through which all traffic moves in the building. Telegraph ranges cover each of the four subways to the flats.

Plots and docking officials receive their signals for the movement of planes through these colored light-colored lights at the concrete ends of the subways leading to the flats. This eliminates all verbal or light signals.

The terminal building is the central end of the international airport base which the American Army's officials say will cost more than \$10,000,000 when completed. The new building, which is 54 ft. high, 114 ft. deep and 157 ft. long, is of structural steel and masonry construction, with stone walls and masonry headstones, supported by pilings in solid rock. The exterior trim is bol-

low coral with windows (most of them bronze). Lobbies and promenade decks are finished in tile. The whole station exterior is shining to the eye under the tropical sun. The building is reached from the state highway through an impressively landscaped driveway, lined with coconut palm, and ending in a traffic circle in front of the entrance.

Hangars to the North

Hangars on both ends of the terminal building enable boarding crews to handle the big flying boats when they are being assigned for flight or have finished their daily runs. Two large hangars north of the terminal building are now used to house the aircraft, although the completed airport plan calls for additional hangars south of the terminal as well. The government has just completed dredging a mile-long channel, 700 ft. in width and with a maximum depth of 7 ft. of water at low tide. This channel is necessary for the safe operation of the fleet of huge flying boats of the "Clydes" class and will allow the planes to be loaded by Pan American's own tugs which link the United States with 32 countries and colonies of Latin America.

Because all of the scheduled out-of-Miami, except those to Havana and Nassau, require flights of a full day's duration, the level of the traffic volume is lower during the early morning and late afternoon hours. If this severe distribution of arrivals and departures could be spread out throughout the day, the new terminal's capacity might be increased beyond the 780 daily passengers for which it has been designed. Traffic has increased steadily since opening the airport and at all Miami in 1938 and now more than 2,000 passengers a day. Daily and 1,500 ft. of capacity are needed each month throughout the year. During the winter season passenger traffic is, on the whole, 1,000 persons weekly.

The basic design of the terminal building and the operating facilities of the international air base was worked out by Fred J. Collins, airport engineer for the Caribbean division of the Pan American System, and his associates, J. W. Ransom, with the advice of traffic and operating officials of the company. Nelson K. Aiken, New York architect, provided the architectural design for the structure. The whole project has been under the eagle eye of Bruce F. Daniels, manager of Pan American's Caribbean division. It is certainly one of the best planned terminal buildings on land or across airports in the United States today. The added complications of providing facilities for the expenditure of health, immigration and customs inspection (not usually a problem of the domestic airport designer) have been taken into stride. It is a glimpse of better for traffic and operation officials.

Hangar Flying

An odd joke
turns out to have
its more serious
aspects

TIME WAS when an article about hangar flying was tossed without question into the basket of our "State-Secret" editor, but he looks on that file in quite another category. Over in the Headquarters Center office of the Army Corps School of Aeronautics, hangar flying is on a new course. One "hangar" under the head of the late type Link Trainer with its full complement of instrument and radio equipment is a convenient demonstration that here is a device used to no more amusement park attraction, but a new tool which, if properly applied, can be of mutual assistance in training pilots for blind flight by instrument and radio.

The Link Trainer still is not badly new. It was developed some five or six years ago by E. A. Link of Cortland, N. Y., for preliminary flight instruction. It is a sort of streamlined rough-cut spreading radiatory wings and tail, mounted vertically on a pivot. A hidden mechanism of the gyroscopic-precessional type simulates the



A man in a flight suit sits in the Link Trainer, which is used for blind flying instruction.

movements of an airplane in the air from operation of a turned stick and rudder bar. Although the behavior of the machine approximated that of an airplane to a reasonably good degree, it was never widely adopted as a substitute for actual hours in the air for primary instruction. When Link applied a special set of Pioneer instruments (compass, speed meter, climb indicator and turn-and-bank) whose readings were made to read more or less accurately with the attitude of the trainer, its possibilities for blind flying instruction for experienced pilots began to be recognized. The most recent application of radio, however, has materially broadened its scope.

Radio signals originate in a constant wave transmitter (powered by the instructor) whose characteristics are essentially the same as those of the real radio receiver stations. Automatic reproduction of the common A, N, and "no error" signals is provided—broken precisely by status identification signal lanterns (ordinarily a function of distance from the transmitter) is controlled by a rheostat. The rheostat

looks and the crank and pointer control for course indicators can be set to an accompanying photomark. The student under the hood receives all signals through the usual form of radio headset.

Where from 25 to 70 hours of instruction in the air is normally required to give a trained pilot a good working knowledge of instrument and radio blind flying, operation of the device claims that fifteen hours under the trainer's hood (the first five on instruments alone and the second ten on instrument plus radio), supplemented by five hours in the air, will be an equivalent experience. The cost of training on the Link device is considerably less than the equivalent air instruction. Greatest time saving arises from the fact that no long distances need to be flown in hour for representative hours of instrument flying problems. Any of the numerous mechanisms of speed, direction, altitude or weather can be simulated by the instructor controlling the radio set. The student now flies work on a wide range of problems and can repeat any given problem in a matter of minutes instead of having to make the time in flying each one 10 or 20 miles at any time to repeat a piece of instruction.

A great deal of interest has been exhibited in the new device. Six units have been sold to the U. S. Army (one from 25 delivery—now in the Japanese Navy, U. S. Navy and Russian officials have requested also and are contemplating purchase. There are, of course, as we flying clubs, remember long hours spent in the intensive artillery spotting exercise, or who have seen an account of an engine driver for training bombers in British flying schools, on all the radio equipped Link Trainer to one lot of longer flying devices which could, perform some serious functions.



Needs of welcome or of parking are taken in the upper level waiting rooms, as indicated on plan permitted beyond this point.



A system of stairs is used to guide passengers along the upper corridor on the lower level which are connected with the four central subways.



Shows the Pioneer instrument panel. Right: The receiver lanterns which the instructor can simulate any type of radio instrument panel for the student under the hood.





Right: Final working in the woodworking department of the Naval Air Establishment.

Below, right: Workers are constructing wing and struts of the "Huang" biplane with sheeting silk or Japanese made cloth covering and aluminum barbed wire mesh in final building.



Left: A young construction in the "Huang" biplane primary engine assembly with the 10000-000-0 engine. The first of five this airplane was completed late in 1934.

Below: The airplane was built under the plan of the "Huang" was constructed about two years later. It was studied in the East had shown slightly better performance with the aid of the first engine.



Right: Working on the "Huang" biplane with a 10000-000-0 engine. The hull structure of the "Huang" was built up of native silk.



Manufacturing in China

By Harrison Forman

One of the few non-political institutions in China, the Naval Air Establishment, has progressed slowly but surely in the work of applying native materials to the construction of airplanes. Since the spring of 1934 this organization under the direction of able men trained in China, America and England, has struggled through revolution and political change, hindered mainly by scarcity of funds. A number of the airplanes it has built by tedious hand work are described in the accompanying article.

equipment, and the design and construction of aircraft. These men were Lieutenants (now Captains) Y. T. Diao (Diao Yachao), Y. K. Yang (Yang Yuchang), T. Wang (Wang Yung) and S. F. Wang (Wang Sifeng). All of these men, besides an early training at home, had obtained extensive technical and commercial experience abroad—especially in England and America.

In order to save time and the initial cost for the construction of a new plant and the installation of new equipment suitable for the work contemplated, a part of the Navy-owned Government Dock and Engineering Works, commonly

UNTIL recent years China has been an almost totally non-manufacturing country. It is only in the last two decades that she has begun to enter the self-progressive field. This activity has been stimulated by the awakening of national consciousness since the Revolution in 1911. Without a background of accumulated years of experimental and research work in the evaluation and use of some products, China, of necessity, had to content herself at first with simple establishments for the assembly of the segregated foreign-made parts into the finished whole.

It was not until the final year of the War that China took an active interest in the construction of aircraft. Under the supervision of the Chinese Navy the

Naval Air Establishment was created in the spring of 1935 with headquarters at Fuzhou in the province of Fukien. Four well-trained men were placed in charge of the administration of the es-



Below: A passenger liner built right at home had by accident the screw propeller of the "Wu" a propeller that was made in China whose design was characterized by the absence of wire bracing. In the foreground are the hulls of the machine

and at the Naval Air Establishment. Below: A propeller that was made in China whose design was characterized by the absence of wire bracing. In the foreground are the hulls of the machine



just 1936 brought the "Huang" an almost perfect 100-hp. 100-hp. Wright Whirlwind engine. Although the design for building it may be said to have been a success, as is the case with other aircraft planes of Chinese construction.

Inter-city bus maintenance practices hold a valuable lesson for airline operators

A Matter of Precedent

By

Earl F. Theisinger

Associate Editor, *Bus Transportation*

and

S. Paul Johnston

Associate Editor, *Intercom*

THINKER has been a lot altogether remained relatively low. In airports in the aviation vineyard, it is considered themselves a people in sport, explorers of fresh fields without benefit of prior experience from more groundlings. The idea of flying bus looks as itself revolutionary for the busman world, that it is carried with it a feeling that all aspects of the system must be carefully and meticulously to meet other field of endeavor. Now that commercial aviation has put its foot on the ground into a slightly backhanded marketplace, it has begun to use itself in proper perspective as an integral part of the general transportation picture. It can well afford to shift the bus hat and look to some of its counterparts for ideas that may be applied to its particular problem.

Trackside, railway system and even steamship lines have already contributed certain valuable lessons in the fields of passenger solicitation, express carriage, and traffic handling. When it comes to operations in general and maintenance in particular, however, a parallel exists between the given situation and commercial bus lines and the airlines becomes obvious from a casual inspection and of considerable significance when analyzed in detail. Except for the fact that the latter has three dimensions and buses in two, the essential differences between the two are not very great. The costs are comparable in size and category; they depend for their propulsion on essentially the same mechanism, the internal combustion engine; the materials which enter into their construction are similar, and many of their parts are exactly alike. Unlike railroads and trolley systems, there are no production economies of way. Terminal and intermediate stations are very similar, and in general previous about the same features. The personnel, however, is particularly striking in the maintenance departments. The services which must be performed to keep the units in operating condition are essentially the same. Tires are of lesser wear be serviced; storage batteries charged not charged; electric lighting systems checked; landing and takeoff data kept in good working order; brakes and tires kept clean and sanitary; valves greased; control mechanisms as adjusted, and, in short, a hundred and one jobs that must be done periodically to insure continuous and safe operation are in the same general cat-

egory. There is no more striking evidence of similarity than the fact that the same kind of maintenance work takes place at maintenance of major size in both fields. Much of the time in such instances it would be difficult for a visitor to determine the program was concerned with airplanes or buses. By and large, the similarity is so marked that it is well worth any airline operator's time to look to the bus field for new ideas.

Basic course

Bus operations in America is comparatively new but it absorbed vast commercial airline development by six or seven years. In the early 1920's a great many people were attracted by the idea that money could be made from bus transport and many a private operator decided almost overnight to enter the field. They were, for the most part, ex-tireless boys in transportation problems and in business and the net result was an extremely chaotic condition which created the railroad and trolley line of the period (who had feared that the new form of transportation would offer considerable competition) to rule their hands in multiple play. It seemed to them that the infant industry could not long survive. Its maintenance-like growth is well illustrated by the fact that between 1922 and 1924 more than 3,000 bus companies came into existence. Most of them operated on a small scale, in many of cases simply as a sideline, but it was good news for the equipment manufacturers; however, who sold many millions of dollars worth of buses and accessories, mostly on a monthly payment plan. By 1925 had over \$100,000,000 worth of equipment had been put into service.

It did not take long for most of the small operators to discover that they were losing money at a more rapid rate than they had estimated their potential gains. Many of these had gradually figured that buses would run indefinitely if kept supplied with gas, oil and tires,

and there was very little attention paid to maintenance of any kind. Road failures became frequent, and service irregular, and the public began to doubt the new form of transportation in favor of the established railroad and trolley lines.

Analysis of the situation soon indicated that the major trouble was occurring in the maintenance departments. Many bus operators had knowledge of experienced maintenance procedures or of efficient shop methods and practices. Buses were being pushed up only after they had failed in service, and the facilities available for service and repair both with respect to building, tools and personnel were of the backwash nature. Accounting practices were very crude, and, in general, their only common attribute was a failure to record anything as to the true condition of equipment in maintenance shops. On the average, operations costs recorded increase by 1 or 2 cents a mile, with maintenance costs running at about 27 cents a mile. A relatively high reduction in maintenance costs, therefore, could make the difference between red and black ink on the company statement. There were little or no efforts toward inspection, no interchanges of costed information. There was no attempt to build up quality inspection and repair, which would give some standards of comparison of maintenance efficiency. It was a case of every man for himself, and so chaotic.

Then the enterprising spirit of the industry did not fade as a sea of high maintenance costs in the so small degree to a company member in 1925 by the Transportation to create an organization of the importance of maintenance and to develop and perfect uniform maintenance practices and methods. Fortunately, operators and manufacturers were not slow in making the needed assimilation of the situation and they did major bus lines are operated as a degree of efficiency which may well serve as a pattern for those interested in maintenance of equipment in the aviation field. No longer does work operator work at the clock, developing independently his solution to problems which are common to all. It has been recognized that the common goal is served by using the widest possible circulation to information concerning tooling, methods and costs. In all these matters it has been proven in the entire satisfaction of all concerned that there is more to be gained through co-operation

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tion than from drawing the veil of secrecy about matters that might conceivably be considered as private.

Why not discuss costs?

Fortunately, the maintenance picture in the air transport industry of today is not comparable to the early chaotic state of the bus company. Operators generally have gained through the period of bio-avian maintenance and have long since adopted the philosophy of preventive maintenance—that is, taking care of trouble before it happens. A study of the series of articles on airframe maintenance which has appeared in these pages during the last two years, indicates a conscious program that has been made. Recognizing also in the increasing desire of airline operators to develop their maintenance problems openly and to interchange ideas. Besides periodic conferences, information on new methods and new equipment is being disseminated through such agencies as the Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce, and the technical semi-annual press.

So far so good. In size highly important aspect, however, the airframe part industry has far behind the bus transportation group, namely, in the first and open discussion of maintenance costs. The only printed yardstick for the comparison of maintenance efficiency is one based on cost. In order to have costs mean anything as a comparative basis it is necessary first to develop some sort of standardized accounting system which can be generally adopted by the industry. Up in 1925 in the bus

industry there were so many different accounting systems in place that companies it was no small problem, then, to develop a single accounting procedure which could meet the requirements of all companies and yet reveal detailed classified costs which could be compared directly. Again under the leadership of the Transportation, a standardized system of cost accounting for bus operators was evolved which today has been generally adopted.

Uniform accounting needed

To meet the requirements of the Post Office Department in the carriage of mails, some degree of accounting uniformity has been established for the airline, but it is far from adequate for the present purpose. An early step for an transport operators. Priorities should be a complete overhauling of their accounts.



How the operators make an account of their maintenance costs. Shows that the three forms the standardized forms were submitted to complete the bus Transportation standard National uniformity and within a year a solution of the entire of a cost per mile on any vehicle line of maintenance expense could be very accurately showing in the aggregate.

ing process—and an agreement on some sort of uniform procedure. Today, based on the standard accounting procedure, the major bus lines of the country compile annually for the Transportation's Maintenance Award. The purpose of the Maintenance Award is to stimulate and encourage the rapid dissemination of information

on new and improved methods to that the industry may profit through customer experience, and it is no doing, advance more readily the progress of a variety of maintenance. A great many has computers enter this sector largely because it affords them an excellent opportunity to put in concrete form, perhaps for the first time, a complete picture of their maintenance system. Such well-aided studies have proved of great value to the maintenance by pointing out weaknesses in their system which become apparent only when they tried to relate their methods in written form. Customers, not prepared to adjust a complete outline of their year's operations, drawing all at their operating and maintenance costs broken down by cost center. The matter is not related to confidential information, but is available for complete publication. The questionnaire which is submitted to customers is a booklet containing blanks to be filled in under some 360 numbered heads. To show to what extent the information is relevant, several items from that booklet submitted by the Greyhound Company for the Maintenance Award Contest for 1953 are reproduced herewith. This does not represent an isolated case. It was submitted

by one of the largest bus operators in the country along with similar statements from several other companies in that group. Obviously the bus companies make no mystery of their operating and maintenance costs.

Cost competition

And what of it? What is there to be gained by maintaining figures which might normally be considered as confidential? The largest unit of companies now exists among the several companies in this group of three published maintenance costs. Thus, if the Super-Super Stage Lines of West Texas show that their latest maintenance costs are the equivalent of 41 cents a mile, and Mr. Joe Stolt of the K.V.Z. Bus Lines knows that his charges are moving him 14 cents a mile, Mr. Stolt immediately gets to work to find out "how come," and before long his cost is down to 7 cents. When this comes to the cost of the maintenance loss at Super-Super, he finds ways to do the same job for 9 cents per mile for the next year, and so it goes. Competition of this sort has been going on for the last five or six years in the bus field and has been re-

peated in steadily reducing overall maintenance costs. A large New England fleet, for example, operating as a company of 1,000,000 of a year has shown the following reduction in overall maintenance costs in cents per mile: 1950-12.7, 1951-9.9, 1952-8.8, 1953-7.7, and for the first quarter of 1954-6.5. Results like these more than justify years of effort and the fuller co-operation and interchange of essential information.

Clearly then, in the field of maintenance, airline operators cannot feel that they are working secretly without the benefit of precedent. A great deal of progress has been made but there is yet much of value that can be learned from a study of methods evolved by the bus people. Although bus operators in the past are and have some five or six years more experience behind it, it is not impossible, too, that the bus men might find it well to their advantage to take some of the good overhead and repair methods which the airlines have built up at such points as Chicago and Kansas City. Both groups need and should seek the benefits of industry co-operation and of general free interchange of reports on new methods and vital statistics.

Wright Field investigates the problem of propeller blade failures due to resonant vibration

A Study of Propeller Vibration

By H. H. Covich

Principal Engineer, Air Corps



Fig. 1: The test setup involved the use of a rotating assembly which was driven by a small air motor.



Fig. 2: Wood dust or sand was sprayed over the blades and when a resonant vibration frequency was reached, particles of dust or sand would be blown off the blades and would be visible in the air stream.



Fig. 3: Mechanical vibration is indicated by the dead load on this propeller which was of the same dimensions and material as that of Fig. 2. The vibration period was 30 sec. per cycle.

Radio Antennas and High Speed Ships

ON 325-mph airplanes the radio antenna is not made of a problem, automatically speaking. Within reasonable limits it is possible to erect masts and drape wires and conductors without any serious effect on the top speed of the ship. With cruising speeds jumping into the 325-350-mph range, however, the problem becomes much more serious and different in kind, with or without projecting antennas are really measured. Practically every airline now agreeing that plans, is experimenting with the problem. United Air Lines, for example, found that the speed of the Boeing 312 transport was reduced by 4 m.p.h. simply by diminishing the vertical mast and slanting the V-shaped antenna supported on three short booms mounted on top of the fuselage. Two of the booms are located just above the rear cabin bulkhead; the third is mounted just over the pilot's cockpit. A short lead-in wire connects the antenna with the radio apparatus in the nose of the ship. This alone cuts of two-way communication requirements. A short wave antenna (which is supported on the pilot's bulkhead) is used for long-range communication.

Several of the airlines are experimenting with the trailing wire type of antenna. The idea of trailing a wire which it weighs as much as 100 lb. (it could be made lighter than the ship) has been abandoned in favor of an unswept wire which trails dis-

continuously in the line of flight. Most designs are not made of a problem, automatically speaking. Within reasonable limits it is possible to erect masts and drape wires and conductors without any serious effect on the top speed of the ship.

A number of interesting mechanical problems are involved in the top of remote controlled masts for paying out and hauling in the proper amount of wire. It is obviously possible to adjust the tensioning frequency of the plane's radio by using various predetermined lengths of aerial wire. What is needed is an automatic device which will pay out the correct amount under a push-button control from the cockpit.

As a solution of the current trend seems to be in favor of hanging short masts, suitably and slanting the antenna tail freely both on the air and on the ground. The attachment fittings on the tail cone are being designed to break at a tension in the neighborhood of 60 to 75 lb. to eliminate any likelihood of damage in the event that the trailing wire should get caught on the ground when the ship is moving. There it is obviously impossible to reduce the ordinary shaking of frequencies when ships are standing on the ground before refueling stations. During antenna trailing on the ground, during antenna have been developed in the form of a small condenser unit which may be placed under the wing in place of a trailing wire. Such devices are quite satisfactory for very short-range trailing, but are of no particular use for air-

space transmission and reception after landing in remote locations. For such cases, however, a light (15 lb.) aluminum mast has been developed to be carried on board ship which may be erected into the ground at a speed of 100 to 150 m.p.h. for the free end of the trailing wire. With such arrangement emergency contacts may be maintained over relatively long distances.

Another aspect of the problem involves the method of stopping the wire trailing system. Whipping has an undesirable aerodynamic effect, but it has a very serious mechanical effect upon the antenna itself. Even after relatively short flights, the antenna is so much of a problem, automatically speaking. Within reasonable limits it is possible to erect masts and drape wires and conductors without any serious effect on the top speed of the ship.

REPEATED failures, both in military and commercial service of aerial propellers built from materials the endurance limits of which were well above the stresses imposed for them under operating conditions, caused the Material Division recently to inaugurate an extensive program of research into the problem with the hope of arriving at an explanation of the inadequacy and thus be avoided in present blade designs.

This problem presented something of a puzzle. For example, aluminum alloy propellers had failed in which the endurance limit at the point of failure had

been 30,000 lb. per sq. in. and the computed average stresses 4,000 lb. per sq. in. Moreover, steel propellers, likewise, with an endurance limit of 80,000 lb. per sq. in. at the point of failure, had failed at computed stresses of 30,000 lb. per sq. in. Since the problem was clearly not one of simple stresses, it was determined to study the types of vibration possible in aerial propellers to learn whether vibration was responsible for the failures. Although the research program is by no means completed, it has progressed to the point where prediction of failure has been accomplished in location of nodes or non-vibrating

sections of the propeller blades and by determination of the resonant vibration frequency of the propeller. The propeller was considered as a tapered twisted beam made up of thin aerial sections. The blade deflection curve about a central axis is obtained by the chord of the first deflection and a very rapid about an axis at right angles to the initial axis. For the constant of vibration in the propeller under the normally propeller was considered in a pair of shock waves each of such slowness that a low natural frequency would result. A rotating twisted weight driven by a

small air motor was mounted on the front of the propeller hub so that the plane of rotation of the weight passed through the center hub of the propeller blade. The speed of the air motor was gradually increased until violent vibration resulted.

Blade stress under vibration

The action of the propeller blades under the vibrating forces at various frequencies was found to be similar to the vibration of gyms. The type showed a large amplitude, and certain strains or ripples in the blades were found to be practically stationary. The position of the blade was found by shaking the wood dust or sand on the blades. When a resonant vibration frequency was reached, practically all of the dust spread off the blades except at the stationary nodal points. The nodal points of dust remained. The nodal points, at locations in their vicinity, are points of maximum stress in the blade under vibration and will be the point at which the propeller will fail at the vibration stresses plus the normal stresses around the endurance limit of the material. That portion of the blade between two nodes when there was great amplitude of vibration is referred to as a loop.

A normal type of vibration is produced by mounting the rotating eccentric weight on the front of the hub so that the plane of the rotating weight is at right angles to the center line of the two-needle-per-blade type. This type of vibration, which produces a fan-like face, does the center of the face of the fan is responsible for no known propeller failure to date.

Failures in flight

Between Model failures, including six different propeller designs, which occurred in the operation of military and commercial aircraft were studied. Six of the Models crashed near the 300 ft station in flight (near the second wave from the tip) at between 130 and 160 hours flying time. The planes were generally flown with speed elevators and the particular propeller employed was operating at a resonant frequency at this blade setting.

Due to the existence of the resonant vibration frequencies of the propeller by the engine displacement and that these due to resonant frequencies resulted in causing speed by the proximity of the blade to wood points. Some of the failures were hastened by, some limits imposed during start-up and take-off at the points of maximum stress. It is possible to have failure at any rate of the ends on the blade. The rate of the failure in service have occurred at some one of the nodes for the three-needle-per-blade type of vibration.

Below the resonant propeller which

failed in flight, two failures were produced by the rotating eccentric weight with the propeller suspended in a simple frame was produced with a two-needle-per-blade type of vibration. Complete failure occurred after one hour and ten minutes of operating at a resonant frequency. The other failure was produced with a three-needle-per-blade type of vibration. A pronounced crack developed after 25 min. of operation, complete failure occurred after seven to 20 min. The failure was a duplicate of one which was produced after 119 hr flying time. The two fractures that occurred with the propeller suspended in a sling were located just inside the node nearest the tip.

In all, there were found to be three types of vibration possible at a propeller: (a) with a loop at the center line of the propeller hub, (b) with a node at the center line of the propeller hub, (c) torsional type with nodes along the outer line of the propeller blade.

In all types of vibration with a loop at the center line of the propeller hub, both blade tips will move up and down at the same time, in an action similar to that of a bird jumping on wings. By connecting an electric lamp in series with a battery and holding the ends of the wire so that both blades make contact on the top stroke, the current will pass through the blade and light the lamp once during each cycle of vibration when the blades are on the upper half of the stroke.

In all types of vibration with the node at the center line of the propeller hub, and one or more nodes per blade, one tip will move up while the other tip moves down. To test for a node at the center line of the propeller hub, on contact of the electric light circuit held on the face side of the blade and the other contact on the outer side near the tip. If the node is at the center line of the hub a circuit breaker effect will be produced which will light the electric lamp.

As the speed of the rotating eccentric



Frequency at which the stress level at vibration stress

weight is increased, resonant vibration frequencies will be produced which will have two nodes per blade, three nodes per blade, etc., but under all conditions the test for loop or node at the center line of the blade is determined by the electric light method. That the sand or wood dust settles about two nodes at a clockwise direction and about others in a counter clockwise direction is accounted for by the rotating action at the blades at the nodes.

Effect of blade angle

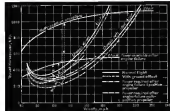
The values of resonant frequencies change with the change of blade angle, as shown in the curves herewith reproduced. The designation "three loops" signifies a type of vibration with three nodes per blade with a loop at the center line of the propeller blade. The designation "three nodes" signifies a type of vibration with three nodes per blade with a node at the center line of the propeller hub. Cases were found where the propeller successfully passed the fatigue test on the ground where the blade angle was low and the blade was not running at resonant frequency, whereas at the higher blade angle the propellers were running under resonant frequency conditions and failure occurred.

When the propeller is rotating on the engine the centrifugal force on the blades raises the resonant frequencies to some extent. For the airplane engine the increase is material; for the two-needle-per-blade condition, it is somewhat large, and for the three-needle-per-blade condition, only slight. A study is being made to determine the exact amount that these resonant frequencies increase in flight due to the speed of rotation of the propeller.

New types should be studied

With the information gathered through the tests to date, it would seem to be the better part of wisdom to study all Models of new or radical design for resonant frequencies below the final breaking test to make on the blades. If the dynamic design is found to have resonant vibration frequencies which will be excited by engine operation within the flying range of engine speeds, alterations in the design can then be made to shift the resonant vibration outside the normal operating range.

Air Corps Information Center conducted a study of the vibration problem and a standard method of obtaining the resonant vibration frequencies has been furnished to the leading manufacturers of propellers. It is being used at the present time in the production of new propellers. A study is also being made to determine the effect of the angle of the blades at attitude in the Air Corps. All data having resonant frequencies at existing speed will be shared or replaced



Stress power for vibration take-off and flight conditions at 10000 ft. (A) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (B) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (C) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (D) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (E) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (F) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (G) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (H) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (I) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (J) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (K) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (L) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (M) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (N) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (O) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (P) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (Q) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (R) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (S) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (T) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (U) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (V) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (W) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (X) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (Y) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems. (Z) Maximum stress power for vibration on two engine (propeller) systems.

Engine Failure at Take-off

By Edmond T. Allen

With the current trend decidedly in the direction of the twin-engine transport it is time for a review of the age-old question of what to do when an engine stops, particularly under the normal conditions of take-off. Mr. Allen, whose contributions are already well known to AVIATION readers, furnishes the answers based on theoretical considerations and wide experience as a test pilot. His treatment demands the closest attention from engineers, but also, and most particularly, from pilots.

THE RECENT southwestern experience of several new twin-engine transport airplanes has led to a new examination of the basic principle for the relative comparison of the two types of leading American transport operators. Every new trend in design is usually supported by exaggerated statements and is resisted by bitter counter-statements. If the latter holds a present of improved design and development about a particular line, it is well worth while considering closely one of the duties to especially on both sides.

The passage of the tri-engine as a type has been repeatedly pointed out as the trend that is to less efficient and less available for passenger transport than the bi-engine. This view, however, has not been unanimously accepted. The air-motor designers, and their principle argument in the question of safety in

the event of a motor failure on take-off. The tri-engine, they argue, has, until a few years ago, two modern advantages, or two-thirds of its total horsepower, to pull in case of an difficulty, while the bi-engine has only one-half of its total horsepower in its emergency. In examining this argument, the first point to be considered is the relative probability of engine failure on the two types of airplanes. On a purely statistical basis, the tri-engine is more likely to suffer engine failure in the ratio of 1 to 1, or 2 to 1, than the bi-engine. It is a 36 per cent greater danger on take-off with the tri-engine than with the bi-engine. If we assume that the average life of an engine is 2000 hours, then the tri-engine is 36 per cent greater danger on take-off with the tri-engine than with the bi-engine. If we assume that the average life of an engine is 2000 hours, then the tri-engine is 36 per cent greater danger on take-off with the tri-engine than with the bi-engine. If we assume that the average life of an engine is 2000 hours, then the tri-engine is 36 per cent greater danger on take-off with the tri-engine than with the bi-engine.

per engine. This is not strictly accurate, however, because engine operation, usually the criterion for engine failure, is much greater on take-off than in normal cruising flight. If full rated power is used on take-off and 75 per cent power is used in cruising, we may assume that take-off would use three times greater fuel than cruising. In which case, the tri-engine failure per mile would reduce to 4,000,000 per engine. This would give three million mile off per engine failure as a bi-engine and two million as a tri-engine. Most engine failures on take-off are not, however, caused by over stressing the engine, but are due to some of the causes connected with initial raising of the engine, such as faulty carburetors, which has not yet been involved at engine operating temperatures, faulty hot spools, or faulty lubrication. One transport line

EDITORIALS

AVIATION

EDWARD P. WARTER, Editor

Fixed-Base Blue Eagle

A GENTLEMAN who shall be nameless, as he shirks (in personal publicity, even a small airport and flying service is the oasis of a thriving little city. His flying service, too, has thrived upon the whole. Its owner has always realized that his fundamental concern was to have good equipment and keep it in proper condition and to find competent personnel to operate it. He has maintained his self-respect and the respect of his community, and he has had a steady flow of business from young people (and their parents) bent on learning to fly, from citizens anxious to get somewhere in a hurry and unable to fit their itinerary to the regular airline schedules, from people finally weary with the conviction that they ought to see what the birds look like from overhead and willing to pay a couple of dollars for the privilege, and from those having need of a surety of other accustomed services such as the making of photographs and the making of advertising items of various sorts. The operator of the service, himself a pilot of long standing, has been enough of a business man to resist the temptation that a would-be rest has to do a job before he undertakes it, and then on being paid at least enough to cover the cost. He falls far short of the millionaire class, but he has made a modest living out of aviation, he has a name with his bank, and he has been full of hope for a steadily brightening future.

But there is one cloud on his horizon. A few years ago another pilot acquired a small used plane at little cost, rented a temporarily deserted 30-acre pasture by a highway, and stuck up a wind-sock and a sign proclaiming an airport. The newcomer was full of optimism, and empty of knowledge of accounting methods or of the organization of maintenance work on equipment. Quite arbitrarily, for no discernible reason, he announced prices for hop-flying and for instruction something below half those that had prevailed on the field already established. Since the money that came in had to be paid out again almost immediately for gas and oil and for the numerous living expenses of the pilot, maintenance was slighted and overheads were postponed, and after about six months a cracking eliminated the surplus and closed down the operation.

In the meantime the fellow with the long-established

service suffered both directly and indirectly. He lost a substantial amount of business as prices that he refused to meet, for they were below any reasonably possible operating costs. He suffered a still larger indirect loss from the lowered reputation that aviation came to enjoy in that community and from the alarm that his competitor's final crash aroused. The operator of flying service, which had begun to be established in popular esteem as the responsible business of a responsible man, began to slip back by popular assignment into the category of half-baked popular entertainment unworthy of the serious notice of serious people. The effect of that experience was lived down in due course and the upgrade was required, but in another year or so another arrogant enthusiast came along and started up on his own account, and the cycle was repeated. The operator that had spent the last six or eight years in trying to build a reputation, not only for himself but for the business of which he is a part, and to educate his possible customers into a willingness to pay for flying service what it is really worth and what it really costs is getting a little fed up with having to cope with all this transitory and unstable competition.

THAT experience in the aggregate, in a somewhat amplified form, of essentially what a great many operators have suffered in the past few years. The essential circumstances are easy to recognize, and to parallel in almost any part of the country. Until a few years ago could give the responsible and experienced operator nothing but sympathy and the assurance that in spite of the low quality of service would make itself felt and the public would have to stand by the man on whom they had learned that they could rely, but now it is possible to offer something more tangible. We now have the National Industrial Recovery Act.

It is far past such shams as we have described, for the control of irresponsible or unfair competition dependent upon pre-empting by operating at a loss or by clipping the quality of service, that the multiple-provision of NRA codes exist. Today the flying service operator can go to Washington through any agency representing a substantial proportion of their number—as, for specific example, the newly formed Incorporated American Operators of the United States—and lay down a schedule of proper minimum rates for

flying service and minimum service conditions and ask that it be accepted as the law of the land. They can do so, so sure that one can hardly believe it, with whatever justities they themselves regard as sound. They can make transportation and transportation illegal. Stipulations can be made relative to the starting of new services in direct competition to those already existing, or services operating from fields totally inferior to other fields available and already in use in the same neighborhood. The abuse of public can be severely enlarged, and the general attitude of the leaders of business and finance towards local airport operations can be materially improved. It is only necessary for people in the business to decide that they want to make the effort, and to prohibit the fact to the leaders of their own organizations.

NOTHING could have been done without an organization. Numerous attempts have been made in the past to get fixed-base operators together under one flag or under one, and all of them have collapsed. Now it appears that one is succeeding, and that it itself is the best possible evidence of general recognition of a need for organized activity. We suggest to America's actually operators that the most important task of their group is the drafting of a code of trade practices, with all necessary discriminations and differentials between locations, between large cities and small, and between various types of operation and of airports, and thereafter to submit it to the NRA and to press for the earliest possible approval and enforcement.

Piloting, A Profession

EVERYBODY whose experience goes back to the days of the War will recall that even at that early date the candidate for Air Service wages got under way with air work of ground school before he ever went near a flyable airplane. In that six weeks about three-quarters of the total time was consumed by matters that a military pilot must know, but that are not piloting. Radio code practice, and handling engine problems, and the identification of patterns of military aviation from the air were the main occupations.

The code that goes to Randolph Field or Pensacola in 1934 finds himself still more involved in studies that seem only incidentally aeronautical. Piloting technique appears from the very beginning as only a part of his job, and before he gets through his course and goes to a squadron it may include only a comparatively minor part. And with military aviation, as is a progressively greater extent with commercial flying as well.

THERE was a time in the beginning of air transport when a pilot's only real responsibilities were to know how to handle the controls superlatively well and to know his route. Meteorology and other sciences might

be recognized as useful, and a knowledge of the engineering of the airplane and the engine was always a help, but flying technique was first among the essentials and everything else was insignificant by comparison.

Time has changed all that. The transport pilot of 1934, to be really qualified for his job as it will develop over the next ten years, must have had the equivalent of a postgraduate technical education. It is not even enough for him to know instruments flying through fog and the use of radio and the interpretation of weather maps and signs. He has to understand the mechanics entrusted to him, the principles of his working, and the results of the tests that it has undergone as such as evident that he will be able not merely to use it safely in a routine fashion but to adapt his operation to changing circumstances so as to get the best possible results out of the equipment at every moment. The professional rejection of an air line pilot as they stand today and as they are sure to develop in the near future call for a whole library of sea-basis, and there is going to be no place in the field for the man who thinks that piloting is a "practical business" and who scores the help that the books could bring. Nor will there be any place for anyone who ever falls into the error of supposing that his education has been completed and that he has fully mastered his art. The articles of Allen and Oswald on the determination of existing conditions and those of Kirdener on schedule-making and schedule keeping, all appearing in AVIATION within the past few months, are typical of the sort of material on which the man that plans to keep up with progress must keep up to date.

AIRPLANE pilots have been compared with everyone from taxicab drivers to experts on steam locomotives. A great deal of nonsense has been talked about the impending lowering of the demands on the pilot and reduction of his work to simply means by "robot relief" and the like. Comparisons and sweeping conclusions are always dangerous, but if a comparison is to be made it is plainly the captain of an ocean-going vessel that most nearly corresponds to the pilot of a transport liner. The man in the cockpit has less extensive responsibility than the man on the bridge, but his need for sound judgment is equally great and he has and almost inevitably will continue to have much more mechanical detail to take care of. He has to be not merely the commander of his ship, but to a large extent his own chief engineer, radio operator, and quartermaster. His command of instruments approximates that and in some respects exceeds that of a 30,000-ton ship.

Quite apart from his technical duties he shares with the liner captain the obligation to represent his company to its passengers. A passenger's impression of service is very largely an impression of the pilot and the way he goes about his work. He has the responsibility of a professional man and he ought to be in a position to look forward to a long and unspiced career of respon-

able service, and to suitable economic protection for his later years at the end of his professional activity. Planning of transport planes is not merely the employment of a specialized skill, but rather the earliest application of judgment and experience to the solution of problems readily new. It cannot be classed as "labor" as ordinarily interpreted. It is more over to tell into that category, or even to find its compensation located in the levels within, which the wages of labor ordinarily lie, it would be a sad day for us in transportation. We do not for a moment believe that anything of that sort will happen, but it would be equally serious if any pilot were to allow himself to relapse into contentment with himself and his work. Any pilot who began to do that of himself simply as a man with a job would very soon under the inexorable pressure of progress, find himself a man without one.

Research to the Fore

ABOUT THIS TIME each year the aircraft industry prepares to move in its force on Langley Field and the laboratories of the NACA. This springtime year has become an annual habit, and out of the annual expenditure of 200 or 300 at the NACA field day the majority are veterans who have acquired the habit as though that they were afraid of losing the try. In the last two or three years these veterans have been sensing a change in the atmosphere of the meeting, for an interest in the details of research equipment, method, and results that were once concentrated among scientists has spread to every group in the aircraft industry. The representatives of the builders of aircraft for the military market stand in steadily growing numbers, and the manufacturers of light commercial craft and the operators of airlines, though they came comparatively late to the roster of the meeting, are finally beginning to play a part.

ALTHOUGH it is quite a compliment to the National Advisory Committee, but it is much more than that—it is evidence of a new appreciation of the vital importance of the scientific fundamentals of aircraft design. Research has ceased to be the servant of aerodynamic development, and has become its guide. One need not go to the very narrow past to find that research, like God and the doctor in the ancient fable, was valued by the sons of strictly practical interests principally in time of trouble, when he had no use as an unexpended obstacle and needed to have it removed in a hurry. Now he has learned not only to avoid the obstacle by a sufficiently extensive preliminary study, but to make certain that he is really getting the best possible result from his product, and not merely a possibly good one, by trying out the whole range of possible alternatives under laboratory conditions. On a modern

high-speed transport the difference between a wing-fuselage fit usually failed to look about right and one determined as the ideal through a long series of studies in the wind tunnel may be 3 or 4 p.h. in maximum speed. On a 12-passenger, twin-engine transport that costs a saving of about \$2,500 a year in operating cost on a single stage. On no other (or twenty such) plane, the saving is a single year would be enough to pay the cost of building and equipping a first-class wind tunnel in which to do the work. This fact has made itself felt, and whereas no more than four or five years ago it was rather an extraordinary thing to have any extensive wind-tunnel testing done before building a new ship it has now become the general rule. Not only the wind tunnel, but the wind-pipe channel as well, has become an accepted and an almost necessary instrument of the designer in his preliminary planning of a new type.

AVIATION has suffered at times from a delusive belief, which one may not encounter here and there, that research and analysis in airplane design are finite trials and that what is needed is to have a good practical rule with an extended experience as a pilot and a good eye for line drawn in pictures of the new airplane and build it accordingly. There was a time when this went as far as the very making of engineering drawings for an experimental machine was considered as full under the head of "trials," and one pioneer builder used to boast that "The model was in the middle and work outward and not inside what anything on the plane was going to be like until he came to it." That certainly is one way of doing it, but not the best way. How far it is from being the best became apparent when the practical men successful of theory and of research has done this and when another designer unhelped by any such view, but possessed of wind tunnels and believing their results, takes the same set of specifications and produces a machine that is put into the competition. The airplane builder by experience and by accurate judgment is prone to look extremely foolish, under those conditions, as against the ship in which judgment is backed by careful application of science and of laboratory technique.

Already it is true that a majority of America's largest aircraft builders either have wind tunnels of their own or have access to the tunnels of neighboring enterprises. We judge that within another three or four years the company that fails to own and operate its own tunnel will be quite out of the running, and that an aerodynamic section attached to every engineering staff, with its personal concern themselves exclusively with aerodynamic research and with the analysis of aerodynamic problems handed over to them by the designers, will be no questionable extravagance but quite as much of a necessity as the stress analysis group in today. The company points that way, and the wise management will make its place accordingly.

NEWS OF THE MONTH

Army surrenders mail

THE proclamation for mail situation reached a temporary settlement on May 3 when Postmaster General Parsons awarded through contract to the lowest bidder on Elton of the routes advertised on March 20 and April 5 respectively (see list of bidders and awards, see Aviation, May, page 135). Former mail carriers awarded contracts were United Air Lines; TWA, Inc.; Eastern Air Lines; General Air Lines (Western Air Express); American Airlines; Northwest to the mail fold comprised Pacific Seaboard Airlines; Western Air Service; Capital Airlines; Long and Shortline. Bids from two tentative independent operators, Harford, Tri State Air Lines, Bland Airways, and one independent, Alfred Davis, were not to accept pending receipt of further information concerning their qualifications. A few days later, Bland and Davis received contracts for the Chicago-Fort Worth, and the Salt Lake City-Salt Lake, Mont., routes respectively, and on May 15 Harford Tri-State was awarded the Chicago-Pittsburgh, S. D., route. Three out of five bids from Kohler Aviation Corporation, Northern Air Transport, Inc., and Syn. Aviation Corporation for various routes. Kohler had earlier bid a contract with the Post Office Department but had operated under a subcontract from Northwest Airways for the Detroit-Milwaukee route. Consequently, it would not have been disbarred from rebidding. Two routes still unassigned, Dallas, Dallas-Fort Worth (FWA), portion now going to the administration because he participated in the May 1959, contract. Northern Air Transport, low bidder on the Fargo, B. D.-Seattle route, was disqualified because of its inadequate equipment. The flight of the route was bid, and failed to include reports of its financial responsibility. Two days later the contract for this route was awarded to Northwest Air Lines, a former mail contractor and low bidder on the route. The bid of Syn. Aviation Corporation on the route from Boston to Port Washington was rejected because the Post Office Department wished to rearrange the route from Port Worth to the East.

When the contracts were awarded, Mr. Parsons announced that bids on his new routes would be opened on May 25. Re-advertised at the same time were the route from Detroit to Milwaukee, and the Boston-Fort Worth route, now split into three segments. Two segments were advertised as new routes—the first from Boston to Cleveland by way of Albany and Buffalo, and the second from Cleveland to Nashville via Columbus and Louisville. The third segment, however, part of an already new route from Dallas to Washington by way of Nashville. An alternate route over the same territory, according to Bland, was likewise awarded.

The competition for the new contracts was undoubtedly better than the bidding, had been somewhere. There were, for example, to many as nine bidders for the Cleveland-Nashville route, the Boston-Fort Worth route, now split into three segments. Two segments were advertised as new routes—the first from Boston to Cleveland by way of Albany and Buffalo, and the second from Cleveland to Nashville via Columbus and Louisville. The third segment, however, part of an already new route from Dallas to Washington by way of Nashville. An alternate route over the same territory, according to Bland, was likewise awarded.

On the route between Detroit and Dayton and St. Petersburg, Fla., and six on the Chicago-Chicago and New Orleans-Houston routes, respectively. Many of the would be contractors were dark horses, introducing names previously unknown to air transport. Most startling bid came from American Airlines, offering the all-time low of 5 cents per airplane-mile for the Chicago-Fort Worth route. Its date of service, according to Air Lines, bidding 171 cents. On the route between Newark and Port Worth, American Airlines bid 13 cents as against Bland's 234 cents and on the shortest route from Washington to Port Worth, American Airlines bid 34 cents, Bland 46 cents, lowest bidder as for Cleveland-Nashville route was Bland Air Lines with 24 cents. On the Dayton-St. Petersburg route, Franklin A. Huber had low price with 17 cents. E. T. Vance and Wyoming Air Services submitted bid for low price on the Chicago-Chicago route bidding 24.0 cents and 26.5 cents respectively. Robinson Airplane Service (157 cents) and World-Wide (175 cents) were low for New Orleans-Houston. To contract to Bland, Bland was to bid low for the Chicago-Chicago route, that of Mutual Airlines, offering 29 cents. Bland was again low bidder for seven routes. Boston and Cleveland with 24 cents, and once more on the Washington-Chicago route at 27 cents. Other low bidders were Victory Spinal Lines (24 cents) for the Portland, Ore.-Seattle, Bland, Tri-State (189 cents) between St. Paul and Kansas City, Pennsylvania Air Lines (189 cents) from Detroit to Milwaukee, Delta Air Lines (214 cents) for the Charleston-Port Worth route. Same for American Airlines on former contractor was low bidder on any route. Contracted with those capable Postmaster General Parsons estimated the actual cost under the new system at \$2,268,280 (\$4,000,000 rate approved for the present fiscal year). The average pay per mile will be 29 cents as compared with the previous rate of 40 cents.

The new air mail map as conceived by the Post Office Department will cover 26,445 miles, an increase of 4,500 miles over the mileage flown by the mail. Four additional states, 13 additional cities will be served. But because of certified schedules the daily trip mileage will amount to only 78,196 miles or against 87,674 miles flown daily under the pre-privatization system. (See map for comparison of routes)

Calendar

Intelligence-Defense of Post.
Admission: Air Force International Radio, Detroit, Mich., May 10.

Post Office-Continued of the
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FLYING EQUIPMENT

Waco for 1934

OUT at Hawley Acker's Eastern Field headquarters last week, we had an opportunity to inspect the new Wacos. The Model C, four-place, appears this year in two standard forms, differing chiefly in power plant installation. The YKC carries the Continental R-670 engine rated 225 hp. at 2,000 r.p.m. The YKC is fitted with the new Javela L-4 engine delivering 225 hp. at 2,000 r.p.m. They exhibit minor variations as follows:

	Model YKC	Model YKC
Length overall (ft. in.)	22-0 1/2	26-9 1/2
Height overall (ft. in.)	9-0 1/2	9-0 1/2
Wing span (ft. in.)	32-0 1/2	32-0 1/2
Wing area (sq. ft.)	247	247
Wing loading (lb./sq. ft.)	113 1/2	146 1/2
Empty weight (lb.)	1,193	1,193
Empty weight (lb.)	141	141
Empty weight (lb.)	1,052	1,052
Weight loading (lb. per sq. ft.)	11 1/2	12 1/2
Power (brake-hp. per sq. ft.)	14 1/2	12 1/2
Fuel consumption (gallons per hour)	11 1/2	14 1/2
High speed (m.p.h.)	145 1/2	145 1/2
Cruise speed (m.p.h.)	120	120
Land speed (m.p.h.)	42	41
Climb to 5,000 ft. (m.p.h.)	110	110
Service ceiling (ft.)	10,000	10,000

Model C-1 Waco accommodates the Wright R-506-3. Wheelbase of 280 in. It has a wing area of 260.5 sq. ft., weighs 3,000 lb. gross, shows a top speed of 152 m.p.h.

Construction details follow standard Waco practice. Fuselage and tail surfaces are welded steel tubing (aluminum alloy and wire mesh covered). Ailerons are also welded covered. Ailerons



Latest Waco cabin types are available with Continental engine or Wright engine



are corrugated steel sheets. A small tab at the trailing edge of the aileron (adjustable on the ground only) does away with the necessity of providing any trim adjustment for aileron correction. Landing gear is of the single strut, wire braced Waco type with fairs at the wheels and shock absorbers are fitted. A wooden propeller is standard for all models except the Wright-powered C-1. Haycock air injection starter is provided for the Continental-powered ship. The Javela installation includes an electric starter, engine driven generator, and battery system.

The Waco D is a new ship in the second workload class designed to yield high performance. It will take engine ratings from the Wright 280 to 420-hp. Winks and the Pratt and Whitney Wasp Junior. Its empty approach 260 m.p.h. A full description of this ship will appear in a later issue.

In the open cockpit field, the GMP and the YMP are offered. Each can be arranged either as a single-seater, or for three people. The YMP carries the Continental R-670 at 218 hp., and is apt for the fact that its frame has been considerably strengthened, it follows the older Model P pattern. Full S.N.C.L. covering wing root, fuselage, and wheel pants are obvious additions. Its structural features are similar to those outlined above for the other models. General specifications are: length overall, 23 ft. 14 in.; height overall, 8 ft. 3 1/2 in.; wing, 32 ft.; wing area, 322.5 sq. ft.; weight empty, 1,495 lb.; useful load, 1,015 lb.; payload, 345 lb.; gross weight, 2,510 lb.; wing loading, 147 lb. per sq. ft.; power loading, 11 1/2 hp. per sq. ft. The cruise economy is 13 gal. per hour at cruising speed and the takeoff economy is 36 gal. The ship has a top speed of 145 m.p.h. cruise at

228 m.p.h., lands at 47 m.p.h. Climb at sea level is 1,170 ft. a minute. All Waco models, open or closed, may be had as two-door airplanes.

Kinner Four-Place Cabin

ALTHOUGH Kinner is not a newcomer in the cabin field (previously noted that the 156 hp. Playboy was described in the December, 1933 issue of AVIATION) Kinner's capacity has been further built to two (with the design and construction of a new engine, however, the 300 hp. seven-cylinder model (see AVIATION, February, 1934), it has been possible to enter the four-place class with the C-7.

Although the layout of C-7 and Playboy are essentially similar, the new ship is considerably larger in overall dimensions. Whereas the four-place Playboy had a span of 29 ft. and length overall of 28 ft. 2 in., the new model measures 39 ft. 5 1/2 in. from tip to tip, and 38 ft. 7 1/2 in. from nose to tail. With the 160 hp. R-5 engine and a gross weight of 2,250 lb. (of which 800 was useful), the Play-



The Continental-powered Waco YMP. The YMP has a double S.E. engine.



Kinner enters a new plane in the four-place cabin class

boy showed a top speed of 135 m.p.h. The C-7, on the other hand, with 300 hp., a gross weight of 2,000 lb., and a useful load of 1,070 lb., has a top of 166 m.p.h., cruise at 145. The C-7 is also fitted with sliding side landing gear which reduce the landing speed to about 40 m.p.h. It has a rate of climb at sea level of about 1,800 ft. per min., and can sustain an absolute ceiling of 10,000 ft.

Few radical changes have been made in construction from previous Kinner versions. Fuselage and tail surfaces are of welded steel tube. Wing beams and ribs are of wood and the whole is close to below control. Each of the main landing wheels is independently braked from the wing strut, and completely fixed. The gear is wire wheel bearings with the housing wires forming a part of the wing strut system. The engine is completely housed in an S.N.C.L. type cowl, constructed and provided with internal radiator box flanges. Controls are left hand throughout. The cylinder is fixed, and the valve gear operates in the trailing edge of the cylinder for longitudinal run. The plane structure is bonded for radio, and the engine is provided with complete static shielding. Electric generator, master and 12 volt storage battery are standard equipment. The latter can be removed from outside the ship for charging and servicing. 1 engine hour minimum in the last-



larger are also accessible from outside doors. A Weipert radio mounting set with direct reading remote control is included in the standard equipment.

The cabin accommodates four people comfortably. Safety pins are used in the windows of around. The forward door is standard of the transport type. It usually has fixed in ships of this class. Dual controls of the three-door type are possible to fly from either front seat.

Specifications not mentioned above include: wing area (including under surface of fuselage between wings), 225 sq. ft.; weight empty, 2,000 lb.; payload capacity, 1,070 lb.; fuel consumption (cruising at 140 m.p.h.), 18 gal. per hour.

International Aero Show

EUROPEAN manufacturers took advantage of the Aero Club of Switzerland (show at Geneva) to exhibit some of their latest work. The competition was directed almost exclusively to airplanes of the sport and touring class, (no transport types appeared except for use of the Swissair's Aeromobile (Swissair) and no military ships were in evidence. The British de Havilland Company showed its well-known Tiger Moth and



Automatic slushproof characteristics inherent in the new Waco Waco. Note the built-in slushproof in the lower aileron corner.

Logan Mark, as well as the latest Blériot Major fitted with the Gipsy Major engine. Other British entries included the Miles Hawk with Cirrus engine (two-place open cockpit, low-wing monoplane) and Blackburn with the latest 22 model, open cockpit, side-by-side biplane with the Hercules II engine. This machine, reportedly has a semi-covered fuselage.

For the French, Potez exhibited the new 55, a high-wing cabin monoplane in its basic form, also in its two-place 24 (see AVIATION, September 1932). This machine is suitable for use of fixed headgear, but three seats are in tandem. A top speed of 120 m.p.h. is reported. The C-252 Phoenix by Caudron-Roussel is a cabin machine of a somewhat larger size, accommodating four people. A four-cylinder in-line, four-valve Renault engine with a maximum of 245 hp. in hand. Caudron also exhibited the major machine which competed for the Coupe Deutsch.

The Italian Caproni 135 has been described by one of our British correspondents as "wonderfully looking," presumably on account of a deep and well-curved fuselage. It is a two-place tandem biplane powered with a Caproni 135 hp. supercharger engine. Second, another Italian exhibition showed an interesting amphibious monoplane with a power-plant plant mounted in a nacelle over the center section.

German representatives included the all-star Adler, two-seater tandem biplane powered with an 80-hp. four-cylinder inverted V-type engine, a machine well known to German pilots under its former name the Greiner. Klemin was represented by a low-wing cabin monoplane for four people powered with a Siemens engine. Hispanische Flugwerk made quite an impression with the latest Heinkel 143 S, a two-place open cockpit low-wing monoplane



The latest heavy four-engine machine for the French Air Force, the 143 S.

characterized by an unusually wide external track. This machine was listed with an R.A.C. rating.

Only two Soviet representatives were represented. Albatros Co. with its Model A.C.12, full cowling wood and metal monoplanes with some general resemblance to the well known British De Havilland, powered with a Soviet engine. The Soviet Air Force factory in Leningrad, showed a post-war model Model W.F.1, a two-seater tandem open cockpit biplane with a British Polaris engine.

For the French Air Forces

THE latest in French military aviation is the Potez 41, illustrated at the top of the page. An all-metal half-covered monoplane, it shows an unusual power plant arrangement for a low-wing, four-engine engine machine, mounted above the wings, on each side of the fuselage.

Two-Place Pursuit

IN our January issue we published a photograph of a four-engine low-wing pursuit monoplane for the Army Air Corps by Consolidated Builders. Because has just been obtained on a photograph of the latest version of this machine, substantially similar to the previous model, but carrying an exhaust driven centrifugal supercharger. Further improvement coming up has been obtained through the use of single stage turbo-

charger. The photograph shows clearly how the wheels fold up into the under part of the outer engine nacelle. The engine is a Curtiss Wright parallel Conquestor.

In the British Hammer

TO MEET the requirements of the Australian Government for competition for the first leg of the British-Australian air route between Singapore and Constantinople (via South Wales) by way of Port Darwin the British de Havilland Aircraft Company designed, built, tested and obtained Air Ministry approval on the DH.86 "Beehive Air Line" as the extraordinary short time of four months. A glance at a map of the route gives a clue to the reasons for the peculiar type in specifying power plant installation. The total of approximately 800 hp. is obtained from four of the new D. H. Gipsy Six, developed, inverted, nine-cylinder engines. The preliminary tests have indicated that with our engine out of commission a speed of 30 m.p.h. may be maintained up to 15,000 ft. and with only two engines in operation (and then both on the same side), controlled flight may be maintained up to 3,600 ft.

The use of the four engines at this type has made possible a wider external track, a reduction in the frontal area of the whole power plant. The housing for the two inboard engines has been combined with the housing of the outboard nacelles and the outboard engines located in the immediately rear points on the wing appear to contribute relatively little additional drag to the whole. These factors, combined with the generally good lines of the entire ship are unquestionably responsible for the rather exceptional performance as far as speed is concerned. The top speed has been reported as better than 175 m.p.h.

Another unusual external characteristic is the wing arrangement. One of the known means of increasing aerodynamic efficiency have been employed—splayed plate fins, high gap ribs and unusually high aspect ratio. The latter is particularly notable. Where more lift is required these aspect ratios on the wings of 10 to 12 m.p.h. the DH.86 has an effective ratio of about

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12. The stagger is not very great. From an American point of view, the structure of the DH.86 is unique. The fuselage is a rectangular plywood box, reinforced by four square bracing ribs at the corners and a number of intermediate longitudinal struts, all of which are on the outside of the box. The plywood panel, therefore, forms the skin being directly. The outside of the structure is covered with fabric, bracing material is piped into the spaces between the main panels and the outside fabric covering. As for the wings, composite metal and wooden construction is employed, with fabric covering. The section of the lower wing which carries the engine on the undercarriage is built with metal spars and wooden ribs. The balance of the whole consists of wooden spars and wooden ribs, the spars separated by rubber sheet compression strips with wood bracing. Laminate wings are on the wings at the intermediate points. The outboard struts on each side are single vertical steel tubes. Lateral bracing wires are confined to

the front bay only, bracing structure (1) are very small (2), also simplifying rigging and reducing passenger drag.

The tail sections are of typical de Havilland form and construction. The rudder is actuated by an automatic trailing edge flap, mounted under in principle to that applied on the old Boomer 86 (See AVIATION, September, 1932). The device is also interconnected with the de adjusting gear which is operated from the cockpit to take care of any unduly low power plant condition. All control surfaces are wooden-framed and covered with plywood in solid monocoque structure.

The ship is designed to carry two passengers and a crew of two. Only one gear's foot is provided, however, for up to the side of the ship, where there is an external derrick in a nacelle. Place for a navigator and radio operator (two men also of course, but a relief pilot), is provided to the rear and slightly to the right. There is plenty of space available in the rear of the main cabin for passengers. The pilot's controls are at the front wheel and rubber tire steering. Longitudinal trim is obtained by means of adjusting the whole machine rather than by means of tabs as is common in current American practice. Control for both the fuel and the carburetor is by large hand-levers located beside the pilot's seat. Wheel brakes are operated by a combination of hand lever and rubber pedal action.

The engine is separated from the main cabin by a bulkhead and door. The passenger space is 15 ft. 4 in. long, 5 ft. 6 in. wide and 5 ft. 4 in. high. A lot of seating accommodation can be installed by the use of the whole of the cabin space. The passenger space is 15 ft. 4 in. long, 5 ft. 6 in. wide and 5 ft. 4 in. high. A lot of seating accommodation can be installed by the use of the whole of the cabin space. The passenger space is 15 ft. 4 in. long, 5 ft. 6 in. wide and 5 ft. 4 in. high. A lot of seating accommodation can be installed by the use of the whole of the cabin space.

With the DH.86 successfully launched, the de Havilland Company took a first step in business toward the new ship and eventually reveal the older seven-place design. The new machine, officially designated as the DH.86, leaves very marked resemblance to the 86 except that it is smaller in overall dimensions and lacks the two extreme end nacelles. The same type has been taken in leaving the engine and the outboard gears and the extraordinarily high aspect ratio and wing type of the wings in planform, but have increased. The necessity arose regarding construction of wings and fuselage for the DH.86 wings equally well to the 86.

In preliminary tests the new design shows considerable advance over the older standard model. Some of the improvements were from the use of the higher horsepower Gipsy Six, but also the use of four square airframe designs. The present specifications are: span 40 ft. 0 in., length 34 ft. 0 in., height 10 ft. 10 in., wing area (including elevator) 336 sq. ft., weight empty 2,615 lb., gross weight 5,000 lb., wing loading 13.7 lb. per sq. ft., power loading 12.2 hp. per hp., top speed 140 m.p.h., 1,545 m.p.h. in level flight, 140 m.p.h. service ceiling, 15,000 ft.



A revised design—the DH.86.

42 c.c. capacity. Further lift is a baggage compartment of equal size which is raised through at elevator door. Cabin ventilation is accomplished by individually controlled flaps. Heating can be provided when necessary by passing rooming air over stoves connected to the exhaust.

The present specifications show the span, 40 ft. 0 in., length overall, 43 ft. 11 in., height overall, 12 ft. 0 in., total wing area, 336 sq. ft., weight empty 5,520 lb., total disposable load 2,600 lb. (of which 1,800 lb. is payload), gross weight 5,200 lb., wing loading 13.3 lb. per sq. ft., power loading 12.2 hp. per hp.

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A four-engine monoplane—illustrated here in a photograph—the DH.86.



Extremes of the DH.86—illustrated here in a photograph—the DH.86.

NEW VOLUMES FOR THE SHELVES



THE TRAINING MANUAL, by Arthur Penn, Dunstable, Dorset and Company, New York, 1949, 207 pages.

FOR several years Arthur Penn has been earning a great reputation as a chronicler of industrial developments and an exponent of the philosophy of industry, and when it was decided that this latest anniversary of the General Motors Corporation should be celebrated by publishing the history of the company it was natural that Mr. Penn should have been appointed to its under the authorship. Naturally the book that results is devoted principally to the development of highway transportation, but the world of aviation is close enough to that of the automobile in that even the history of the automobile would be incomplete. Interest becomes more specific in the chapter on research, and in the entitled "General Motors in Aviation." The aeronautical chapter is a brief one, but merely records the most important incidents from the construction of 2,580 Liberty engines and 3,000 DC-3's during the war to the present status of manufacturing and (through contact with North American Aviation) transport services.

Obviously the book has been done with great care and with a vast amount of research among the records of the early years. As anyone who has known Mr. Penn's earlier work will have interpreted, the slowness of historical facts has been woven into a very appealing text.

REVENUE CONTROLLER, by Roger King, Putnam & Company, New York, 1950, 224 pages, \$2.25 approximately.

ROCKET FLIGHT has constituted its last chapter in the last part of its data in that earlier period when Henry Ford was researching on his airplane craft and a host of inventors in Germany and America were struggling to bring something to life themselves up with wires or lost oil-activated schemes of propulsion by gunpowder. Nevertheless it still possesses a certain interest, especially for stratospheric enthusiasts, since the rocket drive by its nature and needs to be of any degree of speed which is not possible. The book provides a general textbook on the theory of the subject, both theoretical and aerodynamic. Very interesting, it can be

recommended only to those who propose to delve deep into rocket flight and are willing to spend plenty of time at it, for the book is the best of its kind that has so far appeared.

STATISTICS OF ROYAL AIR FORCE, by Air Ministry, H. M. Stationery Office, London, 1949, 39 pages, 6d cents approximately.

THE TITLE well describes the book. Each of the British military types now commonly employed is given a page of two relevant drawings, showing the machine as seen from the front, the side (from left to right) and the rear (from right to left), respectively. Plans of similar military forces are all grouped together and all the drawings are on the same scale, the purpose of course being to facilitate recognition by characteristic shapes of form. This is an excellent idea and so well it might be duplicated in America. The book is loose-leaf, and other pages are to be issued for recording as rapidly as new types appear in service.

NEAPOLIS SOLD, by Frederic Clavel, Harcourt, Brace & Company, New York, 1949, 204 pages, \$2.50.

ALL DISTANCES divide when looked at from left to right, and Americans are likely to find New Zealand and Australia as being geographically one country. In point of fact, it is a 1,600 miles across the Tasman Sea, and when Mr. Clavel set out to make the crossing alone in a Mark airplane he had to plan for two interesting landings or attempts that are varied in reality that he had planned to even flying and whether or not they were inhibited. Nevertheless he made the trip and that is the story. As a tale of flight it is the most of the whole book that has been written on such subjects, nothing very remarkable, and it gives an impression of being pulled out in a sudden lunge and a rather less conscious reaching out above dramatic effect. Nevertheless it is about the average and is upon almost a very brief level. The real excitement for aeronautical readers, however, will come in the story of how Mr. Clavel arrived in taking off from one of his aerodromes

to repair planes and rebuild his airplane with the help of strangers who had never seen one. Mr. Clavel himself being a very competent pilot, but lacking approval of every phase of aeronautical engineering and maintenance, the repair job would appear to have had some remarkable features, but it went through in a fairly steady and the Mark again took the air to complete the trip. A typical episode was the lengthy argument, reported in amazing detail, between the author and one of his volunteer helpers as to the degree of distress which should be sought in saving. Later in the story, and the final discovery, after a desperate battle had some days and days stretched the latter one place by hand, that the internal wing wires had been left out.

AIRCRAFT PERFORMANCE TESTING, by S. S. Galt and T. H. Bedford, Pitman Publishing Corporation, New York and London, 1949, 268 pages, \$4.

THE primary purpose of "Aircraft Performance Testing" is to serve as a practical reference manual in making tests in accordance with the standard British official procedure. The provisions to be taken in the actual conduct of a test and the methods used in working up the results are described in great detail, and in a fashion which should be extremely useful to those working under the British rule. Several large folded charts inserted in the book describe the application of the recommended methods in particular cases. Unfortunately British and American practice differ somewhat, and the material in that section of the book is likely to be of interest only to particular sections of performance testing and flight-instrument methods who will want to compare into the greater nature and extent of the differences between their own methods and those of the people engaged in the same work in Great Britain.

The section on engine fan stability and control should be of much greater interest to designers, but unfortunately it is so brief as to be limited almost entirely to the theory. American readers will learn with interest that the British specifications require fan stability tests to be carried out at very low speeds by a type of light turbine followed by recovery within three times after the controls are established but they will learn that the British specifications are somewhat different.

The last section of the volume is concerned with the theory of performance reduction and with the way in which performance varies with certain atmospheric conditions of the airplane. There is little that has not been published before in some form and some of the material is rather old, but it is well enhanced it is a very useful contribution and deserves the usual valuable use of the book.

TRANSPORT
Operations and Traffic Management

Gadget Aids Traffic Clerks

DURING the summer months the Chicago Air Lines takes office in Chicago is a busy place. Some 3,000 telephone calls and 300 telegrams, regarding reservations on the airplanes scheduled out of Chicago daily, put considerable pressure on the crew of clerks and dispatchers detailed to handle the work. To avoid confusion in the office, a turn-table device was invented to handle the greater number of plane reservations. This consists of three octagonal instruments mounted independently one above the other on a common spindle. The reservation charts for each flight are mounted on



A passenger list and a clearance sheet, made ready for the clerk's turntable reservation.



Left and right turntable device used to handle plane reservations.

about the apron of the landing plane. Passengers and a rubber runner on the ramp make for safe and convenient use in all sorts of weather.

Kiosk Ticket Office

KIOSKS at one sort or another are everywhere in many foreign cities. The idea has been adopted in New York City for a city ticket office in Stockholm. The polytechnic structure, set apart from other buildings in a corner of a downtown park attracts the eyes of the passerby, and calls attention to the services offered by the airline. The company in U. S. methods of transporting passengers and packages to and from the airport will be seen in the accompanying photograph. Obviously the bus is not in other airports when not required by the airline.

Up the Gangplank

AN apparatus that resembles, with a few details, the portable gangplank, was got passengers aboard some big ship anything that has got appeared in it in the Conifer Park, Air Station, Ga. But the convenience of passengers of the Cante-Wright Cante-Wright, flown by Eastern Air Transport. The overhead structure of the device is shown in the accompanying photograph. With its portable free end underneath (built up of welded steel angles) and its lifting mechanism, the device can be easily moved



Portable gangplank used by Eastern Air Transport for boarding and unloading the Conifer of Conifer Park.

the second item of the mobile structure. With this arrangement several clerks may work on reservations at the same time without confusion as they descend but they can quickly obtain without waiting through files or piles of papers.

New Use for Railroad

FRENCH always engineers have been an outgrowth of the possibilities of using railroad right of way for aviation marking as a substitute for the more usual road crossings, together in the country. Following a system devised by Capt. Maurice Picaud, large trains traveling on the main lines of the Paris to the railway line between the rails near the principal station. The

THE BUYERS' LOG BOOK

AVIATION's Card Index of New Equipment

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AIRPORT ACCESSORIES

Portable starters

The Cleveland Portable Tool Company,
Cleveland, Ohio

CONVINCED air starting motors for "bumping up" electric starters on aircraft offered in two styles, the No. 3000 with bracket lock for attaching in same manner as high speed electric type, and the No. 77 used to replace the ordinary hand crank. The latter can be replaced with short extension up to 30 in. Both units operate from air at 80 to 125 lb. per sq. in. pressure.

AVIATION, June, 1938

ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT

Chargers

Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company,
East Pittsburgh, Pa.

RECTOX battery chargers are completely dry, non-dismantle, metallic oxide resistors consisting basically of series of copper disks having the property of passing current in one direction only as a result of an oxide coating on one side. There are no moving parts, and no adjustment. Overall efficiency varies from 80 to 90 per cent W & A rated radio interference.

AVIATION, June, 1938

MATERIALS

Cleaning compound

Magna Chemical Company,
Garwood, N. J.

SPECIAL cleaning compounds for aircraft parts available. Magna Aircraft Cleaner is fat and oil cleaning compound for engine and other parts. Magna Aircraft Body Cleaner is designed to remove dirt, oil, etc. from painted surfaces of metal, wood or fabric. It is non-soluble, non-toxic, and leaves a polished surface. Can be used in high pressure spray cleaning plants.

AVIATION, June, 1938

PARTS

Tube couplings (conting)

Parker Appliance Company,
Cleveland, Ohio

THIE first station of the latter No. 35 covering tube couplings and allied equipment has been received. These parts are widely used for fuel, oil and pressure lines in aircraft. The bulletin covers not only the specific products for aircraft plumbing, but outlines other industrial applications. Complete specifications, instructions for assembly, special tooling required, etc.

AVIATION, June, 1938

RADIO

Airport transmitter

RCA Victor Company, Inc.,
Cedar, N. J.

MODEL AVT-1 equipment designed for short range traffic control with several airports. Has effective range of about 15 miles. Unit is crystal controlled, 15 watt type, capable of 100 per cent modulation when used with double beam microphone. Operates from 115 volt 50-60 cycle AC. Factory pre-tuned to any desired frequency between 200-400 kc. 16x10x25 in. Weight 200 lb.

AVIATION, June, 1938

SHOP EQUIPMENT

Air compressors (conting)

The Brunner Manufacturing Company,
Union, N. Y.

AREVISED line of air compressors suitable for shop or airport use is covered by the new Brunner Air Compressor Catalog No. 28, just issued. Products include single-stage, twin-cylinder units, vertical tank models, and a number of two stage machines. Engineering data on air compressors, as well as details of compressed air accessories included. Copies available on request.

AVIATION, June, 1938

SHOP EQUIPMENT

Bench lath

South Bend Lathe Works,
South Bend, Ind.

ASMALL lath capable of handling a wide variety of work has been marketed recently for small shop use. Has 9 in. swing, both ground, and can be arranged for countershaft or direct motor drive. Will cut screw threads, right or left hand, from 6 to 40 per in. Arranged for bench mounting. Workshop Bulletin S-W, available on request, describes the machine in detail.

AVIATION, June, 1938

SHOP EQUIPMENT

Chain hoist

American Chain Company, Inc.,
York, Pa.

THE Wright Manufacturing Division announces improvements in their standard line of chain hoists for shop use. One innovation is new coating for all exposed parts making the hoist primed for outdoor service. All moving parts treated in ball bearings, grease sealed. Careless lubrication applied to all bearings. Wide range of styles and capacities available.

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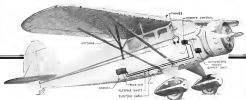
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POTTSTOWN, PA.

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3 AIR MAIL RECORDS WITHIN 3 MONTHS

Powered by WRIGHT CYCLONES

WRIGHT CYCLONES have formed a habit of smashing transcontinental air mail records. Three times within the past three months, Cyclone-powered commercial and military aircraft have established new transcontinental air mail records—carrying mail across the United States from the Pacific Coast terminal and industrial centers to New York in progressively improving time. Following is a brief outline of the three record-breaking flights.

1 TWA Douglas Airliner, powered by two Wright Cyclones, spaced the continent from Los Angeles to New York in 11 hours and 51 minutes. This flight was made on the last day before cancellation of commercial air mail contracts.

2 U. S. Army Air Mail flight from San Francisco to New York in 15 hours and 53 minutes. Two laps of the journey were made in Martin B-10 Bombers, powered by two Wright Cyclones, and one lap in a Curtiss A-11 Ground Attack Plane, powered by a single Wright Cyclone. This flight was made on the last day before the Army started

the air mail back to commercial airline operation.

3 TWA Northrop Gemini, powered by a Wright Cyclone, spaced the continent from Los Angeles to New York in 14 hours and 51 minutes. This flight was made on the day that TWA resumed its operations of carrying the air mail.

The outstanding performance of the Wright Cyclone Engine has influenced many of the world's leading airlines operators to specify "Cyclones" as power equipment for their latest types of high-speed transport. Following are a few representative examples: 4 TWA Douglas Airliners, 6 TWA Northrop Gemini mail planes, 6 Pan American Airways Douglas Airliners, 3 Pan American Airways Kermanshah Airliners, 25 American Air Lines Curtiss-Wright Condors, 9 Eastern Air Lines Curtiss-Wright Condors, 1 American Air Lines Airplane Development Corporation V-4 Transporter, 5 K.L.M. (Royal Dutch Airlines) Fokkers, 1 Swainair Curtiss-Wright Condor and 1 Swainair General Aviation GA-43.



WRIGHT

AERONAUTICAL CORPORATION
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